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## **Formation of the early canine CL and the role of prostaglandin E2 (PGE2) in regulation of its function: An in vivo approach**

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Hoffmann, B ; Schuler, G ; Jurczak, A ; Domosławska, A ; Janowski, T

**Abstract:** The mechanisms governing corpus luteum (CL) function in domestic dogs remain not fully elucidated. The upregulated expression of cyclooxygenase 2 and prostaglandin (PG) E2 synthase (PGES) at the beginning of the canine luteal phase indicated their luteotrophic roles, and the steroidogenic activity of PGE2 in the early canine CL has been confirmed in vitro. Recently, by applying a cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2)-specific inhibitor (firocoxib [Previcox]; Merial) from the day of ovulation until the midluteal phase, the luteotrophic effects of PGs have been shown in vivo. This is a follow-up study investigating the underlying endocrine mechanisms associated with the firocoxib-mediated effects on the canine CL. Experimental groups were formed with ovariectomies performed on Days 5, 10, 20, or 30 of firocoxib treatments (10 mg/kg bw/24h; TGs = treated groups). Untreated dogs served as controls. A decrease of steroidogenic acute regulatory (STAR) protein expression was observed in TGs. The expression of PGE2 synthase was significantly suppressed in TGs 5 and 10, and both PGE2 and PGF2 levels were decreased in luteal homogenates, particularly from CL in TG 5. Similarly, expression of the prolactin receptor (PRLR) was diminished in TGs 5 and 20. The expression of PGE2 receptors PTGER2 (EP2) and PTGER4 (EP4), the PG- transporter (PGT) , and 15-hydroxy PG dehydrogenase (HPGD) was not affected in TGs. Our results substantiate a direct luteotrophic role of PGs in the early canine CL, i.e., by upregulating the steroidogenic machinery. Additionally, the possibility of an indirect effect on PRL function arises from the increased prolactin receptor expression in response to PGE2 treatment in canine lutein cells observed in vitro.

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**Title:**

**Formation of the early canine CL and the role of PGE2 in regulation of its function: An in vivo approach**

**Short title: Role of PGE2 in canine CL: In vivo study**

**Authors:**

M.P. Kowalewski<sup>1</sup>, S. Ihle<sup>1</sup>, M.J. Siemieniuch<sup>2</sup>, A. Gram<sup>1</sup>, A. Boos<sup>1</sup>, S. Zdunczyk<sup>3</sup>, J. Fingerhut<sup>4</sup>, B. Hoffmann<sup>4</sup>, G. Schuler<sup>4</sup>, A. Jurczak<sup>3</sup>, A. Domosławska<sup>3</sup>, T. Janowski<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Veterinary Anatomy, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Zurich, Switzerland

<sup>2</sup>Department of Reproductive Immunology and Pathology, Institute of Animal Reproduction and Food Research, Polish Academy of Sciences, Olsztyn, Poland

<sup>3</sup>Department of Animal Reproduction, University of Warmia and Mazury, Olsztyn, Poland

<sup>4</sup>Clinic for Obstetrics, Gynaecology and Andrology of Large and Small Animals, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Justus-Liebig-University Giessen, Germany

**Correspondence:**

Prof. Dr. Mariusz P. Kowalewski

Institute of Veterinary Anatomy

Vetsuisse Faculty

University of Zurich

Winterthurerstrasse 260

CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland

Tel.: 0041-44-6358784; Fax.: 0041-44-6358943

Email: kowalewski1@yahoo.de or kowalewski@vetanat.uzh.ch

## Abstract

The mechanisms governing corpus luteum (CL) function in domestic dogs remain not fully elucidated. The upregulated expression of cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2) and prostaglandin (PG) E2 synthase (PGES) at the beginning of the canine luteal phase indicated their luteotrophic roles and the steroidogenic activity of PGE2 in the early canine CL has been confirmed *in vitro*. Recently, by applying a COX2 specific inhibitor (firocoxib, Previcox<sup>®</sup>, Merial) from the day of ovulation until the mid-luteal phase, the luteotrophic effects of prostaglandins have been shown *in vivo*. This is a follow-up study investigating the underlying endocrine mechanisms associated with the firocoxib-mediated effects on the canine CL. Experimental groups were formed with ovario-hysterectomies performed at days 5, 10, 20 or 30 of firocoxib-treatments (10mg/kg bw/24h; TGs = treated groups). Untreated dogs served as controls. A decrease of STAR protein expression was observed in TGs. The expression of PGES was significantly suppressed in TGs 5 and 10, and both PGE2 and PGF2 $\alpha$  levels were decreased in luteal homogenates, particularly from CLs in TG 5. Similarly, expression of the prolactin receptor (PRLR) was diminished in TGs 5 and 20. The expression of PGE2-receptors PTGER2 (EP2) and PTGER4 (EP4), the PG-transporter (PGT) and 15-PG-dehydrogenase (HPGD) was not affected in TGs. Our results substantiate a direct luteotrophic role of PGs in the early canine CL, *i.e.*, by upregulating the steroidogenic machinery. Additionally, the possibility of an indirect effect on PRL function arises from the increased PRLR expression in response to PGE2 treatment in canine lutein cells observed *in vitro*.

Keywords: Dog (*Canis familiaris*), prostaglandins, corpus luteum

## Introduction

The mechanisms regulating luteal establishment and maintenance in the domestic dog (*Canis familiaris*) are still not well understood. Following the strong preovulatory luteinisation and ovulation, the canine corpus luteum (CL) develops from residual follicular cells. Cell populations known to contribute to luteal development in other species, *i.e.*, cells of the follicular wall-associated granulosa and the theca interna, likely contribute to the formation of the mature canine CL, even though there is no distinction between small and large lutein cells (reviewed in (13)). The central role of the CL in regulating canine reproduction is due to the fact that, in both pregnant and nonpregnant dogs, CLs are the only source of progesterone (P4) and are thus responsible for the establishment and maintenance of pregnancy. This is in contrast to other carnivores like felids, where progesterone of placental origin has been recently suggested as an additional source of progesterone (2,26). Specific to the dog is also the lack of a uterine luteolysin of endometrial origin (9,24), which in absence of pregnancy can result in a luteal life span exceeding that observed during pregnancy (9).

Whereas during the second half of the luteal phase the canine CL strongly depends on hypophyseal support, with PRL being the crucial luteotrophic hormone as early as day 25 after the preovulatory LH peak (22,23,25), early luteal development appears to be characterized by a period of transitional gonadotropic independence (12,13,23). During this time, locally produced (intra-CL) prostaglandins (PGs) appear to be amongst the most important luteotrophic factors. Thus, formation of the canine CL is associated with increased cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2, PTGS2) and PGE2-synthase (PGES, PTGES) expression (14,19,21), accompanying progressively increasing expression levels of the steroidogenic acute regulatory (STAR) protein and 3 $\beta$ -hydroxysteroid-dehydrogenase (3 $\beta$ HSD, HSD3B2) and dynamically rising circulating P4 levels. In line with these findings, we were able to show that the PTGES-derived PGE2 significantly upregulates P4 synthesis in canine luteal cells isolated from the early CL (15). This effect seems to be mediated at the level of STAR-

dependent steroid substrate provision, rather than at the level of enzymatic activity of 3 $\beta$ HSD and P450 side-chain cleavage enzyme (P450<sub>scc</sub>, CYP11A1), as concluded from their unaltered expression in response to treatment with PGE<sub>2</sub>. Similar effects were observed in other species, such as pig, sheep and human (3,7,29), in which PGE<sub>2</sub> positively affected P4 production by acting through the cAMP/PKA pathway, which is the main cell signalling route involved in STAR-mediated steroidogenesis. The luteotrophic efficiency of PGE<sub>2</sub> has been shown to be similar to that of LH (29).

Most recently, in experiments applying a selective COX2 (PTGS2) inhibitor (firocoxib, Previcox<sup>®</sup>, Merial) during the early canine dioestrus phase, compelling *in vivo* evidence has been provided for luteotrophic effects of PGs in the canine CL (11). In dogs treated for up to 30 days after ovulation with this compound, inhibition of the steroidogenic apparatus was achieved. This was clearly indicated by significantly reduced areas of luteal cell nuclei, decreased expression of 3 $\beta$ HSD, and lower mean P4 concentrations in treated dogs.

In order to gain additional information on the underlying endocrine mechanisms associated with the firocoxib-mediated effects on canine CL, the present experiments assessed the effects of firocoxib on the luteal expression of STAR, COX2 (PTGS2), PTGES and their respective PGE<sub>2</sub> receptors, EP2 (PTGER2) and EP4 (PTGER4), 15-hydroxyprostaglandin dehydrogenase (HPGD, the enzyme responsible for enzymatic deactivation of PGs) and prostaglandin transporter (PGT, SLCO2A1). In parallel, the luteal content of PGE<sub>2</sub> and PGF<sub>2</sub> $\alpha$  was measured. Furthermore, since known luteotrophic hormones could potentially modulate each other's functions, the expression of PRL-receptor (PRLR), LH-receptor (LHR) and the progesterone receptor (PGR) was investigated.

Additionally, taking into account the role of PRL as the main luteotrophic factor during the second half of canine dioestrus, and the recently presented evidence showing increasing expression of its receptor during the early luteal phase (18), the expression of PRLR was investigated by assessing mRNA obtained from primary luteal cells isolated during the early

luteal phase, which had been treated with PGE2 in previous experiments (15).

## **Material and Methods**

### **Tissue sampling**

Tissue materials were the same as those used in our previous study (11). All animal experiments were approved by the responsible ethics committee of the University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn, Poland.

In total, thirty (n=30) bitches of various breeds aged 2-7 years were used for the present study. They were randomly divided into four experimental groups with ovario-hysterectomy performed on days 5 (n=4), 10 (n=3), 20 (n=3) and 30 (n=3) of the treatment and designated as TGs (treatment groups 1-4, respectively). During the treatment periods, dogs received 10 mg/kg daily of firocoxib (a highly selective COX2 inhibitor marketed as Previcox® by Merial Ltd.), which was double the recommended dose of 5 mg/kg body weight per day. Ovario-hysterectomies were performed on the last day of treatment. Additionally, untreated dogs received a placebo and served as controls (CGs = control groups). Five CGs were designated: days 0 (n=3), 5 (n=5), 10 (n=3), 20 (n=3) and 30 (n=3) post ovulation (p.o.). Day 0 was the day of ovulation, determined as the day when peripheral P4 reached levels >5 ng/ml, as measured every two days using a commercially available chemiluminescence kit (Progesterone II®, Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Additionally, the oestrous cycle stage was monitored by examination of vaginal smears. Blood samples were collected every 2 days following ovulation during the entire duration of the experiments for continuous P4 measurements and stored at -20°C until evaluation. The P4 concentrations are presented elsewhere (11).

Following ovario-hysterectomy, CLs were trimmed of connective tissue and cut into small pieces. Subsequently, one piece was preserved for RNA isolation by incubation for 24 h at +4°C in RNAlater® (Ambion Biotechnology GmbH, Wiesbaden, Germany) and then stored at

-80°C until RNA isolation. Another piece of the tissue material was fixed for 24 h at +4°C with 10% phosphate-buffered formalin and paraffin-embedded using a standard procedure.

### **Primary luteal cell cultures**

The mRNA obtained from a previous study (15) was used in the present experiments to gain additional information on PRLR mRNA expression in canine lutein cells in response to PGE<sub>2</sub>-treatment. In that study, canine primary lutein cells were isolated from 15 healthy bitches submitted for routine ovario-hysterectomies, which were performed during the early luteal phase, 7-14 days after the clinical signs of heat had ceased. Briefly, 0.15% Collagenase (Sigma-Aldrich Chemie GmbH, Buch, CH) was applied to isolate cells from luteal tissues collected from each animal. A 75µm cell strainer (BD Biosciences, Basel, CH) was used to remove undissociated tissue fragments. After washing in culture medium (DMEM/F12, pH 7.2-7.4 with 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 100U/ml penicillin and 100µg/ml streptomycin, and 1% ITS; all from Chemie Brunschwig AG, Basel, CH), cells were suspended in culture medium and seeded directly into 6-well plates and cultured in a humidified incubator at 37°C under 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in air. Importantly, the cells were not passaged (trypsinized) prior to the experiments: “passage 0” cells were used. Cells were treated in serum-free medium. The steroidogenic identity of the isolated cells had been confirmed by performing anti-3βHSD and anti-STAR immunofluorescence staining. When stimulated for 6 h with either 0.5 mM N<sub>6</sub>,2'-dibutyryl adenosine-3',5'-cyclic monophosphate (dbcAMP; used for positive control) or 20 µM PGE<sub>2</sub> (both Sigma-Aldrich Chemie GmbH, Buchs, Switzerland), cells exhibited upregulated expression of STAR mRNA and protein, as well as strongly increased P<sub>4</sub> output.

### **Reverse Transcription (RT), real time (TaqMan) PCR and data evaluation**

TRIZol<sup>®</sup> reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) was used to isolate total RNA according to the instructions of the manufacturer. The concentration of RNA was determined with a NanoDrop 2000C<sup>®</sup> spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific AG, Reinach, Switzerland). In order to remove any potential genomic DNA contamination frequently occurring with the use of TRIZol<sup>®</sup>, prior to reverse transcription (RT), all samples were DNase-treated using RQ1 RNase-free DNase (Promega, Dübendorf, Switzerland), following the supplied protocol. For RT reaction, random hexamers were used as primers, which together with other reagents for cDNA synthesis, were purchased from Applied Biosystems (Foster City, CA, USA). Our previously published standard RT protocol was applied (21). All reactions were conducted in an Eppendorf Mastercycler<sup>®</sup> (Vaudaux-Eppendorf AG, Basel, Switzerland). The conditions applied were as follows: 8 min at 21°C, 15 min at 42°C, finally for 5 min at 99°C to stop the enzymatic reaction.

The luteal expression of target genes was semi-quantified by real time (TaqMan) PCR performed in an automated ABI PRISM 7500 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems), with the previously published protocol and the manufacturer's instructions (17,21). For all samples, cDNA corresponding to 200 ng of total RNA per sample was used in duplicate in 96-well optical plates (Applied Biosystems). Fast Start Universal Probe Master (ROX<sup>®</sup>) (Roche Diagnostics AG, Switzerland) was used in reactions that were run under the following conditions: denaturation at 95 °C for 10 min, 40 cycles at 95°C for 15 sec and 60°C for 60 sec. Water instead of cDNA and the so-called RT minus control (*i.e.*, samples that were not reverse-transcribed) were run as negative controls.

Three reference genes, GAPDH, 18SrRNA and cyclophilin, were used in the comparative CT method ( $\Delta\Delta CT$  method) according to the instructions of the ABI 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System manufacturer and as described previously (17,21). By applying the CT slope method, PCR reactions were set up to achieve approximately 100% reaction efficiency. Selected PCR products were sent for commercial sequencing (Microsynth, Balgach, Switzerland). The



primers and 6-carboxyfluorescein (6-FAM)- and 6-carboxytetramethyl-rhodamine (TAMRA)-labelled TaqMan probes were designed using Primer Express Software (Version 2.0, Applied Biosystems) and purchased from Microsynth (Table 1). The canine-specific cyclophilin A TaqMan gene Expression Assay used was obtained commercially from Applied Biosystems (Prod. No. Cf03986523\_gH).

#### **Immunohistochemical expression of STAR and PRLR**

The standard immunoperoxidase immunohistochemistry (IHC) protocol was applied according to our previously published procedure (16,18). Primary antisera were: rabbit polyclonal anti-STAR (a gift from Dr. DM Stocco, Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center, Lubbock, TX, USA; (4)) used at 1:3000 dilution, and polyclonal goat antigen affinity-purified IgG fraction against human PRLr (R&D Systems Europe Ltd), dilution 1:50. Serum from non-immunized rabbit or goat IgG irrelevant antibodies I-5000, from Vector Laboratories Inc., Burlingame, CA940101, CA, USA, served as negative/isotype controls, respectively. Depending on the primary antiserum, 10% horse serum or 10% normal goat serum was used for blocking of nonspecific binding sites. Secondary antibodies were: goat anti-rabbit IgG BA-1000 and horse anti-goat IgG BA-9500, both from Vector Laboratories Inc. (Burlingame, CA, USA), used at 1:100 dilution. Signals were enhanced with avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (Vector Laboratories Inc.) and detected using a Liquid DAB+ substrate kit (Dako Schweiz AG, Baar, Switzerland). Sections were counterstained with hematoxylin and embedded in Histokit (Assistant, Osterode, Germany)

#### **Luteal PGE2 and PGF2 $\alpha$ extraction and determination**

Extraction of luteal prostaglandins was done according to the previously described protocol (27). Briefly, luteal fragments weighing 30-50 mg were stored at -80°C. After thawing, each tissue sample was homogenized in a glass vial using a tissue disruptor with 400  $\mu$ l of a Tris

buffered saline containing proteins and sodium azide as preservative, acidified by addition of 45  $\mu$ l 1 N HCl. After adding 3 ml of ethyl ether to the samples, they were vortexed for 10 min and incubated at -20°C for 4 h. Afterwards, the supernatant was collected and evaporated to dryness under a stream of nitrogen at 40°C. Finally, 400  $\mu$ l of the Tris buffered saline was added, mixed and allowed to sit for 15 min at 20°C. The samples were stored at -20°C until the immunoassay was run.

For PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  and PGE<sub>2</sub> measurements, the commercial PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  high sensitivity EIA kit and the PGE<sub>2</sub> high sensitivity EIA kit (both from ENZO Life Sciences Inc., Farmingdale, NY, USA) were used, and run according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The sensitivity of the PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  assay was 0.98 pg/ml. The cross-reactivity for various PGs and their metabolites was as follows: PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  100%, PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$</sub>  11.82%, PGD<sub>2</sub> 3.62%, 6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$</sub>  1.38%, PGI<sub>2</sub> 1.25% and PGE<sub>2</sub> 0.77%. The inter- and intra-assay variation coefficients were 10.8% and 8.6%, respectively. The sensitivity of the PGE<sub>2</sub> assay was 8.26 pg/ml. The cross-reactivity for various prostaglandins and their metabolites was as follows: PGE<sub>2</sub> 100%, PGE<sub>1</sub> 70%, PGE<sub>3</sub> 16.3%, PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$</sub>  1.4%, PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  0.7% and 6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$</sub>  0.6%. The inter- and intra-assay variation coefficients were 12.2% and 6.9%, respectively.

## **Statistical evaluation**

Due to the uneven distribution of the real time PCR data, the geometric means (X<sub>g</sub>) and deviation factors (DF) were calculated for the analysis of target gene expression. The PGE<sub>2</sub> and PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  data are presented as the mean  $\pm$  SD. The Kruskal-Wallis Test (a nonparametric ANOVA) followed by Dunn's Multiple Comparisons Test was applied for testing the effects of time on mRNA levels in all control samples (CGs). The effects of time on concentrations of PGE<sub>2</sub> and PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  were calculated using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey-Kramer Multiple Comparisons Test applied for testing the effects of time on

hormone levels in all control samples (CGs). In order to test for the effects of treatments, an unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test was performed; numerical data are presented either as  $\bar{X} \pm \text{DF}$  or mean  $\pm \text{SD}$ . For all tests, the statistical software program GraphPad 3.06 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) was used.  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

## Results

### *Histological assessment of (peri)ovulatory canine follicles*

Histological analysis of haematoxylin-eosin stained tissue cross sections confirmed that ovulation was in progress at day 0 (day of ovulation,  $P_4 > 5\text{ng/ml}$ ). Both freshly ovulated and preovulatory follicles were found (Fig. 1). The latter ones revealed advanced preovulatory luteinisation characterized by strong follicular wall folding. Morphological changes were clearly visible within the theca interna layers, the cells of which changed shape from elongated to rounded. The blood vessels containing luteinizing theca layers were separated from the follicular granulosa cells by clearly distinguishable basement membranes. Following ovulation, further luteinisation of theca interna cells, as well as luteinisation of granulosa cells, and remnants of the basement membranes were observed.

### *Semi-quantitation of gene expression*

The expression of target genes was detectable in all tissue material available for the study. A significant effect of time was observed for the mRNA expression of STAR ( $P < 0.04$ ), COX2 (PTGS2) ( $P < 0.04$ ), PTGES (PGES) ( $P < 0.03$ ), EP2 (PTGER2) ( $P < 0.01$ ), EP4 (PTGER4) ( $P < 0.01$ ), HPGD ( $P < 0.01$ ) and PRLR ( $P < 0.01$ ) in control samples (CG) from ovulation throughout early dioestrus (Fig. 2 and 3). The expression of PGT, LHR and PGR did not differ significantly over time ( $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 3). The expression of STAR and PGES increased significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) following ovulation, reaching the highest levels at day 5 p.o.. Their

expression remained statistically unaltered thereafter (Fig. 2). Similar effects were observed for luteal PRLR expression, which was significantly ( $P<0.05$ ) upregulated in CGs 5 and 20 compared with the day of ovulation (Fig. 3). The expression of COX2 and of the two PGE2 receptors, EP2 and EP4, which was strongly elevated at the beginning of the luteal phase, continued to decrease towards the mid-luteal phase and was significantly ( $P<0.05$ ) downregulated at day 20 and/or 30 after ovulation (Fig. 2). The opposite effect was noted for HPGD with values continuously increasing from ovulation until the end of the observation period in CG 30 ( $P<0.05$ ) (Fig. 2).

Similar to what was observed for most of the CGs, there was a high individual variability in expression of genes following treatment with Previcox<sup>®</sup>. The expression of STAR, PGES and PRLR was negatively affected by this treatment (Fig. 2 and 3). This effect was significant for STAR mRNA expression in TG 5 ( $P<0.03$ ), TG 20 ( $P<0.04$ ) and TG 30 ( $P<0.02$ ). The PGES mRNA abundance was significantly suppressed in TG 5 ( $P<0.03$ ) and TG 10 ( $P<0.04$ ) and that of PRLR in TG 5 ( $P<0.01$ ) and TG 20 ( $P<0.04$ ).

As for STAR and PRLR, similar effects to those observed at the mRNA level were observed for expression of their respective proteins. These were detectable in all immunohistochemically examined samples; the evenly distributed signals were localized to the cytoplasm of lutein cells and appeared to be weaker when COX2 function, and thereby the supply of prostaglandins, was compromised in Previcox<sup>®</sup>-treated dogs (Fig. 4 and 5).

The expression of other members of the prostaglandin family, *i.e.*, COX2, EP2, EP4, HPGD and PGT, as well as of LHR and PGR, remained unaffected by the treatment ( $P>0.05$ ) (Fig. 2 and 3).

The expression of PRLR was significantly upregulated in PGE2-treated lutein cells *in vitro* ( $P<0.05$ ) (Fig. 3F).

#### ***Luteal PGE2 and PGF2 $\alpha$ content***

There was a significant ( $P<0.02$ ) time effect observed for the luteal content of both PGE2 and PGF2 $\alpha$  throughout the course of the experiment (Fig. 6). Their concentrations were strongly elevated in the CLs forming at ovulation with  $394.9 \pm 152.9$  pg/mg tissue and  $505.4 \pm 94.5$  pg/mg tissue for PGE2 and PGF2 $\alpha$ , respectively. Whereas the PGF2 $\alpha$  content was reduced after ovulation to  $5.7 \pm 1.7$  pg/mg tissue, PGE2 remained high in early developing CLs at day 5 p.o. with  $354.6 \pm 140$  pg/mg tissue. As presented in Fig. 6, the PGE2 concentration determined in luteal homogenates was significantly reduced in TG 5 ( $P<0.04$ ) and TG 10 ( $P<0.05$ ) of Previcox<sup>®</sup>-treated dogs. Similarly, the PGF2 $\alpha$  content was further decreased in TG 5 ( $P<0.03$ ).

## Discussion

Morphologically and ultrastructurally, only one type of steroidogenic cell, displaying a high content of both endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria (8), is present in the canine CL. Consequently, its cellular origin and the extent to which either of the cell types in the original population (*i.e.*, theca interna and granulosa) contribute to luteal formation have been subjects of continuous scientific debate (*e.g.*, (5,13)). Our histological analysis of canine ovarian tissues during ovulation revealed the presence of strongly luteinized preovulatory follicles as well as freshly-ovulated follicles. The post-ovulatory development was characterized by intense ingrowth of luteinizing theca interna cells accompanied by blood vessels. Within the inner part of the former follicle (*i.e.*, the *antrum folliculare*), luteinizing granulosa cells were observed, still separated from theca cells by remnants of basement membrane and not yet associated with blood vessels. Thus, this observation on the presence of luteinizing granulosa cells in the early canine CL provides a new insight into canine luteal physiology, even though the process of development of the uniform luteal cell population still remains to be elucidated.

Unequivocally, prostaglandins are among the most important and versatile factors regulating CL function in mammals. In dogs, the role of intraluteal PGs seems to be strongly linked to luteal formation rather than to luteolysis (14,21). This idea has been further strengthened by results obtained in the present study. Hence, expression of the so-called PG family members resembled their previously reported expression patterns (6,14,19), with early luteal development being characterized by increased expression of COX2 (PTGS2), PGES, PTGER2, PTGER4 and PGT, and gradually increasing HPGD expression towards mid-dioestrus. As a consequence thereof, increased availability of luteotrophic PGE2 is observed locally, *i.e.*, within the CL, as shown in the present study. This, in turn, leads to increased STAR protein expression and steroidogenic output.

The PGFS/AKR1C3, which is the only-known canine-specific isoform of PGF2 $\alpha$  synthase, responsible for the direct conversion of PGH2 to PGF2 $\alpha$  (6), is either absent or expressed at a very low level in the canine CL throughout dioestrus (14,20). This fact, in line with results obtained in the present study, is reflected in the very low PGF2 $\alpha$  production within the CL, which is not sufficient to affect normal luteal function, even though PGF2 $\alpha$  is luteolytic in dogs.

Whereas development of the CL was associated with low PGF2 $\alpha$  but increased PGE2 content, the concentration of both PGs was high during ovulation, implicating their involvement in this process, and resembling the situation described in other species (10,28).

In addition to the recently described impairment of steroidogenic machinery in dogs treated with firocoxib during early dioestrus (11), in the present study, potential regulatory mechanisms involved in this process were investigated. Blocking COX2 decreased PGES expression and consequently reduced the PGE2 content in the CL, thereby impairing STAR mRNA and protein expression. This further indicates causality between the expression and functioning of these entities. It is noteworthy that functional coupling between COX2 and

PGES expression for PGE<sub>2</sub> production, even though still not fully elucidated, was previously observed in the brains of COX2-deficient mice (1). Interestingly, the expression and, presumably, the function of the respective PGE<sub>2</sub> receptors, PTGER2 and PTGER4, as well as of PGT and HPGD, remained unaffected.

Making use of the availability of the partial canine-specific PRLR sequence cloned in our laboratory (18), corresponding to the homologous portions of the extra- and trans-membrane domains conserved in PRLR isoforms of other species, the impact of firocoxib on its expression was investigated. Inhibition of COX2 significantly suppressed PRLR expression, both at the mRNA and protein levels. Considering the function of PRL as the main luteotrophic factor in the mature canine CL (22) and the possible role of its receptor as an upstream regulator of STAR and/or 3 $\beta$ HSD expression (18), this is an interesting finding since decreased expression of the PRLR might result in reduced sensitivity of the CL to circulating PRL. The possible functional interrelationship between PGE<sub>2</sub> and PRLR expression is also surmised from the increased expression of PRLR-mRNA in PGE<sub>2</sub>-treated canine luteal cells isolated from early CLs. However, before any final conclusion can be drawn, the complete cDNA of canine PRLR and its potential isoforms need to be elucidated.

The high individual variability noted for the expression of target genes, especially in response to treatment with Previcox<sup>®</sup>, may be indicative of compensatory mechanisms existing within the canine CL and thus merits further investigations, possibly involving larger groups of experimental animals.

Following up on our recent *in vivo* studies providing functional evidence for the luteotrophic role of prostaglandins within the early canine CL, in this study the first insight is presented into the underlying endocrine and molecular regulatory mechanisms. The previously postulated (14,15,19) causality between the COX2 and the PGES-dependent synthesis of PGE<sub>2</sub> regulating STAR protein expression and function has now been clearly shown.

Thereby, the direct role of PGE2 in regulating early canine CL function, as characterized by decreased sensitivity towards gonadotrophic stimuli, has been further substantiated. Moreover, as indicated by *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments (using canine lutein cell cultures), PGE2 seems to be involved indirectly in the PRL-mediated maintenance of canine CL function by potentiating PRLR expression. The latter pathway is a new regulatory mechanism not previously described for species, such as cattle and pigs, in which LH, and to a lesser extent PRL, is essential for luteal maintenance.

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#### **Conflict of interests**

Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.



353 **References:**

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Figure 1

Haematoxylin-eosin (HE) staining of canine (peri)ovulatory follicles, before ovulation (shown at lower and higher magnification) and after ovulation. Open arrowheads = blood vessels, solid arrowheads = basement membrane, open arrows = granulosa cells before ovulation and during luteinization (after ovulation), solid arrows = luteinizing theca interna cells, red arrowhead = cumulus-oocyte complex.

Figure 2

Expression of STAR, COX2, PGES, EP2 (PTGER2), EP4 (PTGER4) and HPGD as determined by semi-quantitative Real Time (TaqMan) PCR in luteal tissue samples of control (cont.) and Previcox<sup>®</sup> (Prev.)-treated dogs (Xg x DF<sup>±1</sup>). Kruskal-Wallis Test followed by Dunn's Multiple Comparison Test was applied to test the effects of time on gene expression in all control samples (dashed lines indicate  $P < 0.05$ ). Student's *t*-test was applied to test the effect of treatment on gene expression: (\*) indicates  $P < 0.02$ , (\*\*) indicates  $P < 0.03$  and (\*\*\*) indicates  $P < 0.04$ .

Figure 3

Expression of PGT, LHR, PGR and PRLR as determined by semi-quantitative Real Time (TaqMan) PCR in (A-D) luteal tissue samples of control (cont.) and Previcox<sup>®</sup> (Prev.)-treated dogs (Xg x DF<sup>±1</sup>) and (E) PRLR expression in canine primary luteal cells collected from non-pregnant dogs during the early luteal phase and treated with PGE2. Untreated cells served as negative controls. Cell culture experiments were performed independently at least three times using cells isolated from different animals. The Kruskal-Wallis Test followed by Dunn's Multiple Comparison Test was applied to test the effects of time on gene expression in all control samples (dashed lines in "D" indicate  $P < 0.05$ ). Student's *t*-test was applied to test the

effect of treatment on gene expression. Bars with (\*) differ at  $P<0.01$ , bars with (\*\*) differ with  $P<0.04$  and bars with (\*\*\*) differ at  $P<0.05$ .

#### Figure 4

Immunohistochemical localisation of STAR protein in canine luteal samples in control and Previcox<sup>®</sup>-treated dogs. Representative pictures are shown for days 5, 20 and 30 after ovulation (p.o.). Positive staining is localized in cytoplasm of lutein cells.

#### Figure 5

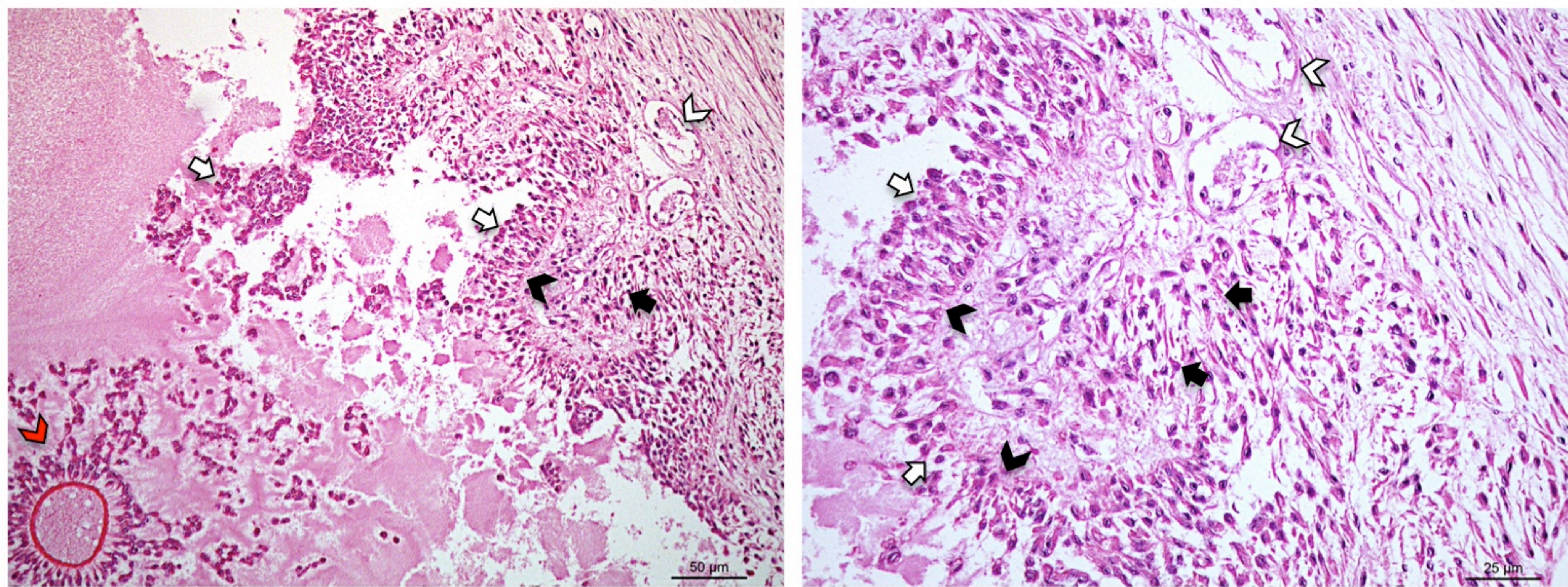
Immunohistochemical localisation of PRLR in canine luteal samples in control and Previcox<sup>®</sup>-treated dogs. Representative pictures are shown for days 5 and 20 after ovulation (p.o.). Positive staining is localized in cytoplasm of lutein cells.

#### Figure 6

Concentrations of PGE2 and PGF2 $\alpha$  in luteal homogenates of control (cont.) and Previcox<sup>®</sup> (Prev.)-treated dogs measured by EIA assay (pg/mg tissue; mean  $\pm$  SD). One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey-Kramer Multiple Comparison Test was applied to test the effects of time on hormone concentrations in all control samples (dashed lines indicate  $P<0.05$ ). Student's *t*-test was applied to test the effect of treatment on hormone concentration: (\*) indicates  $P<0.03$ , (\*\*) indicates  $P<0.04$  and (\*\*\*) indicates  $P<0.05$ .



Before ovulation



After ovulation

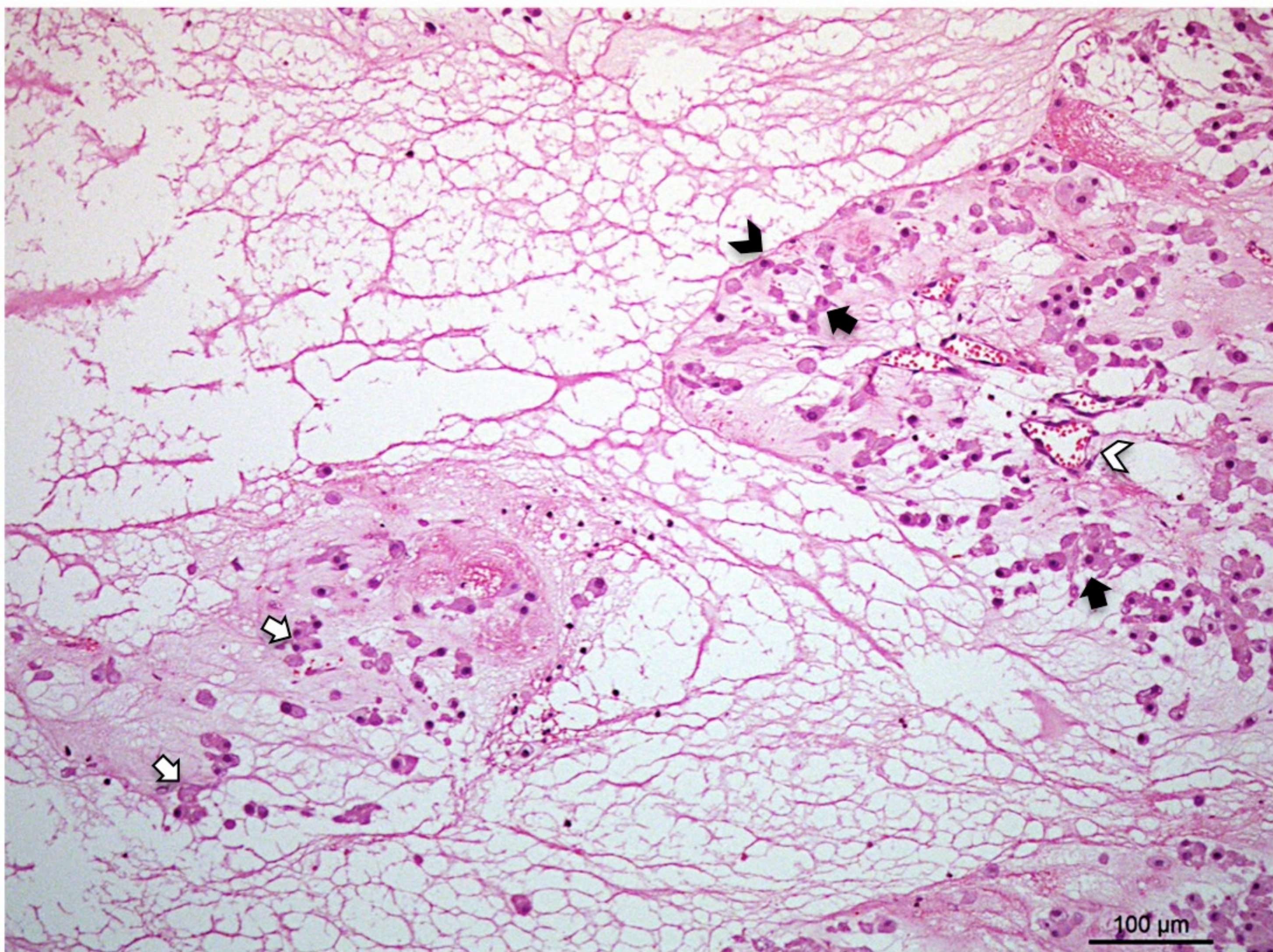


Figure 1



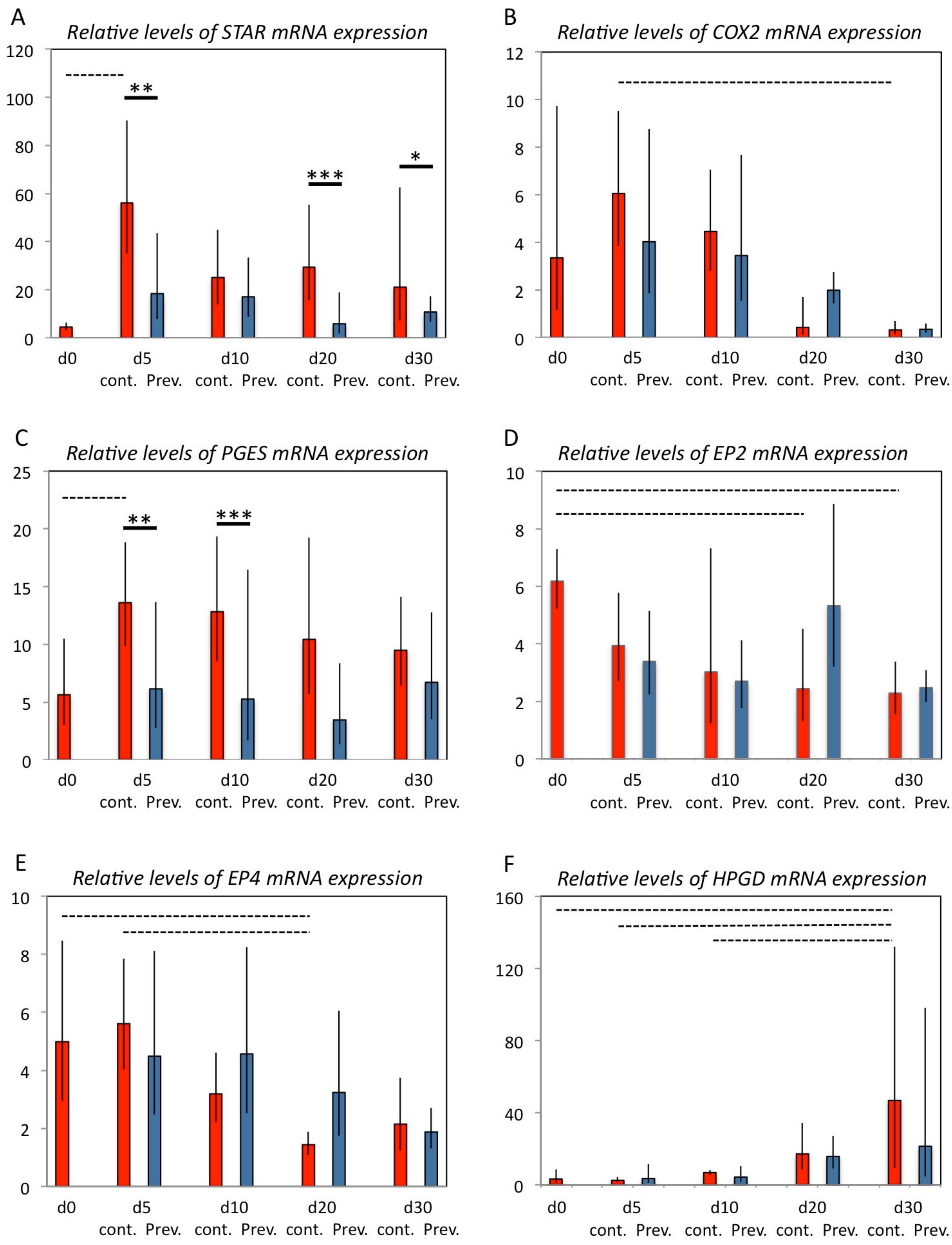


Figure 2

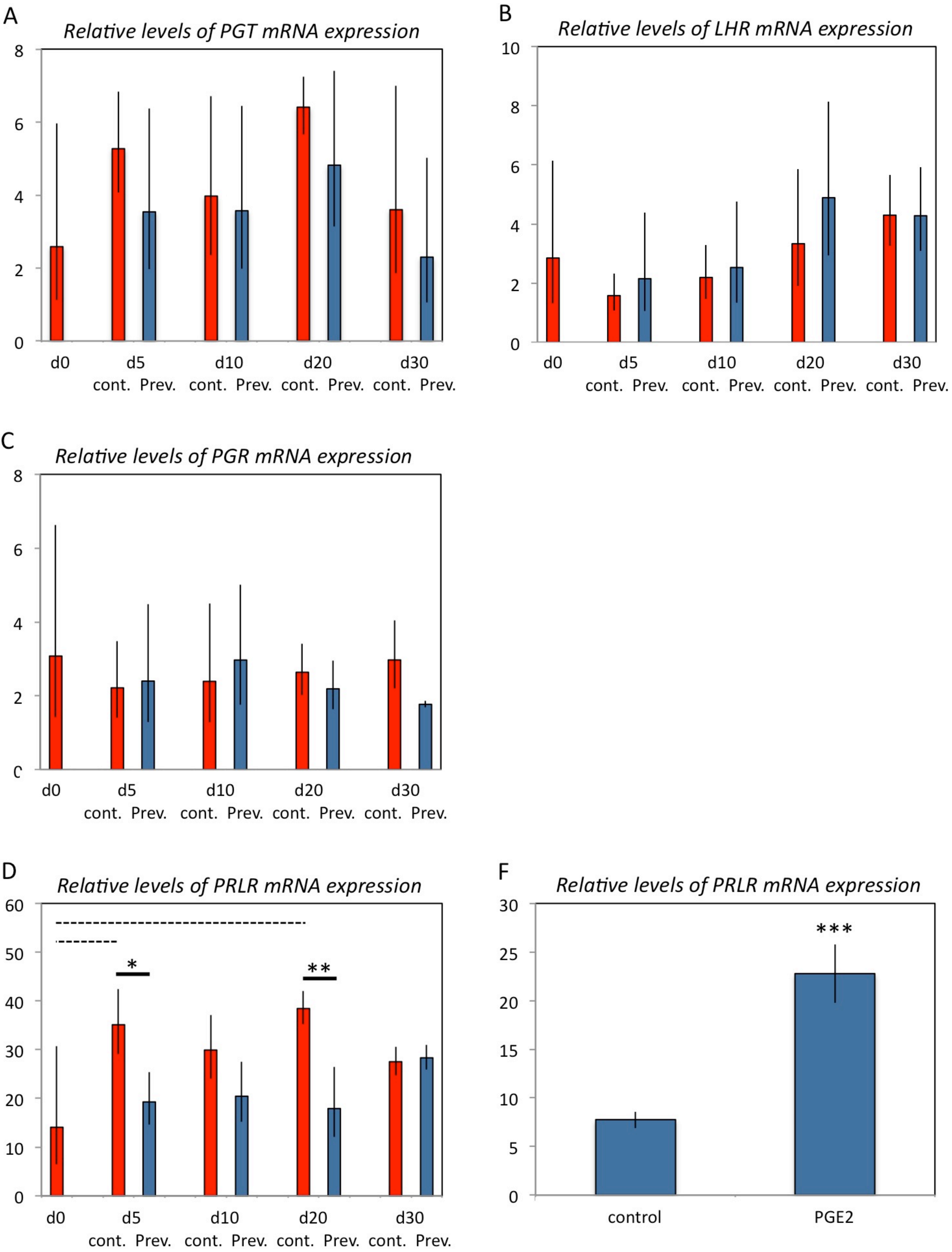
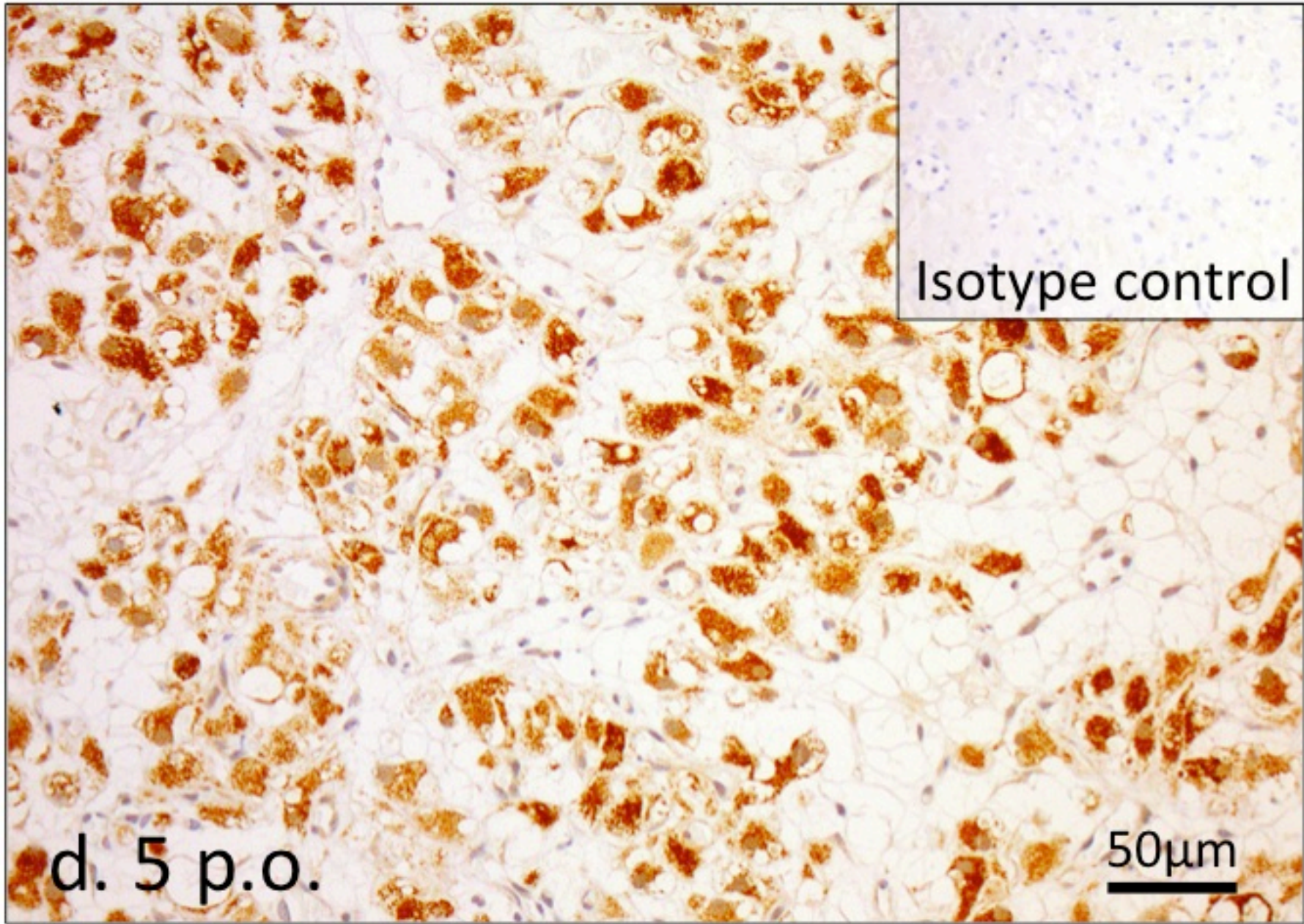


Figure 3



Control



Previcox - treated

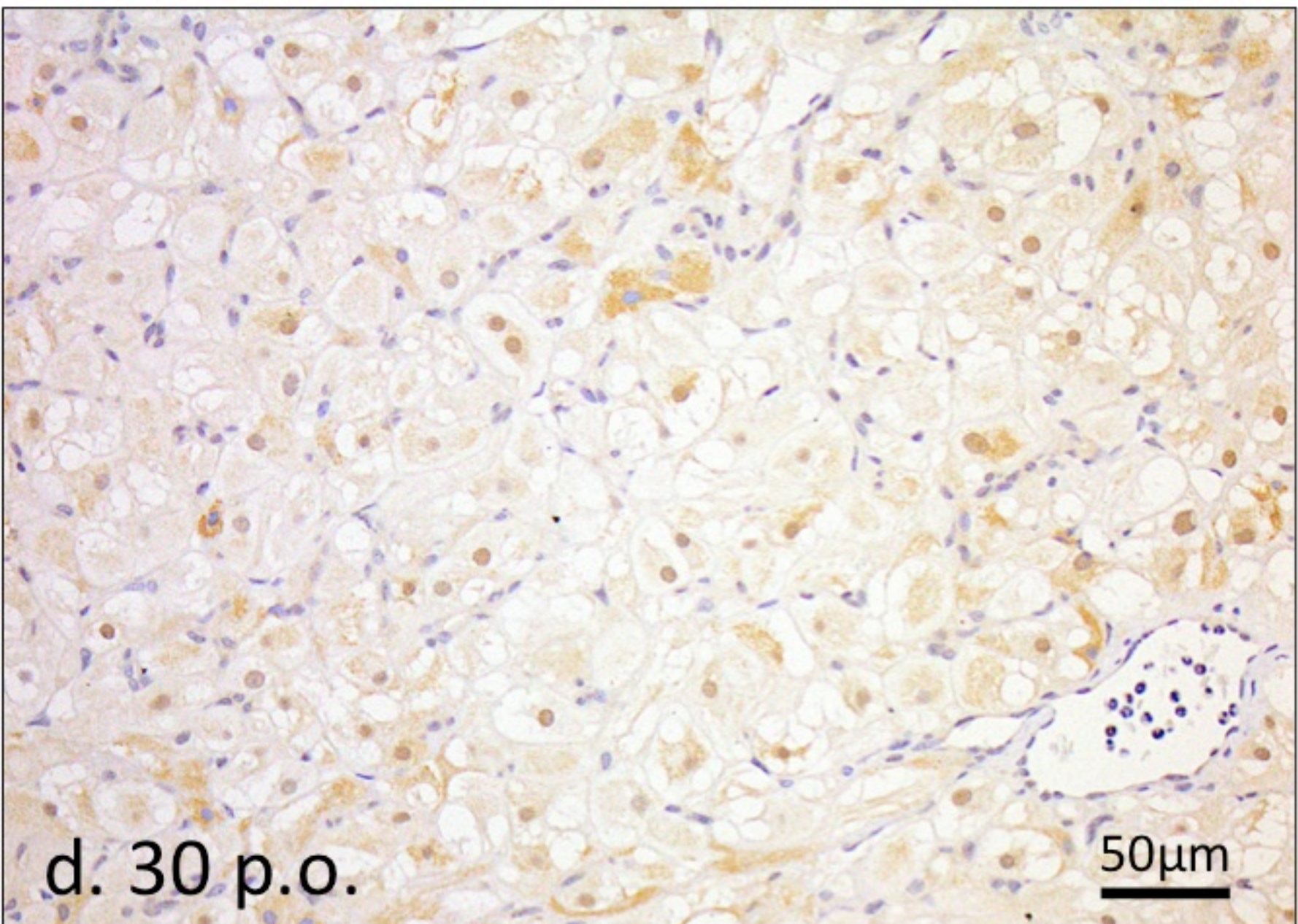
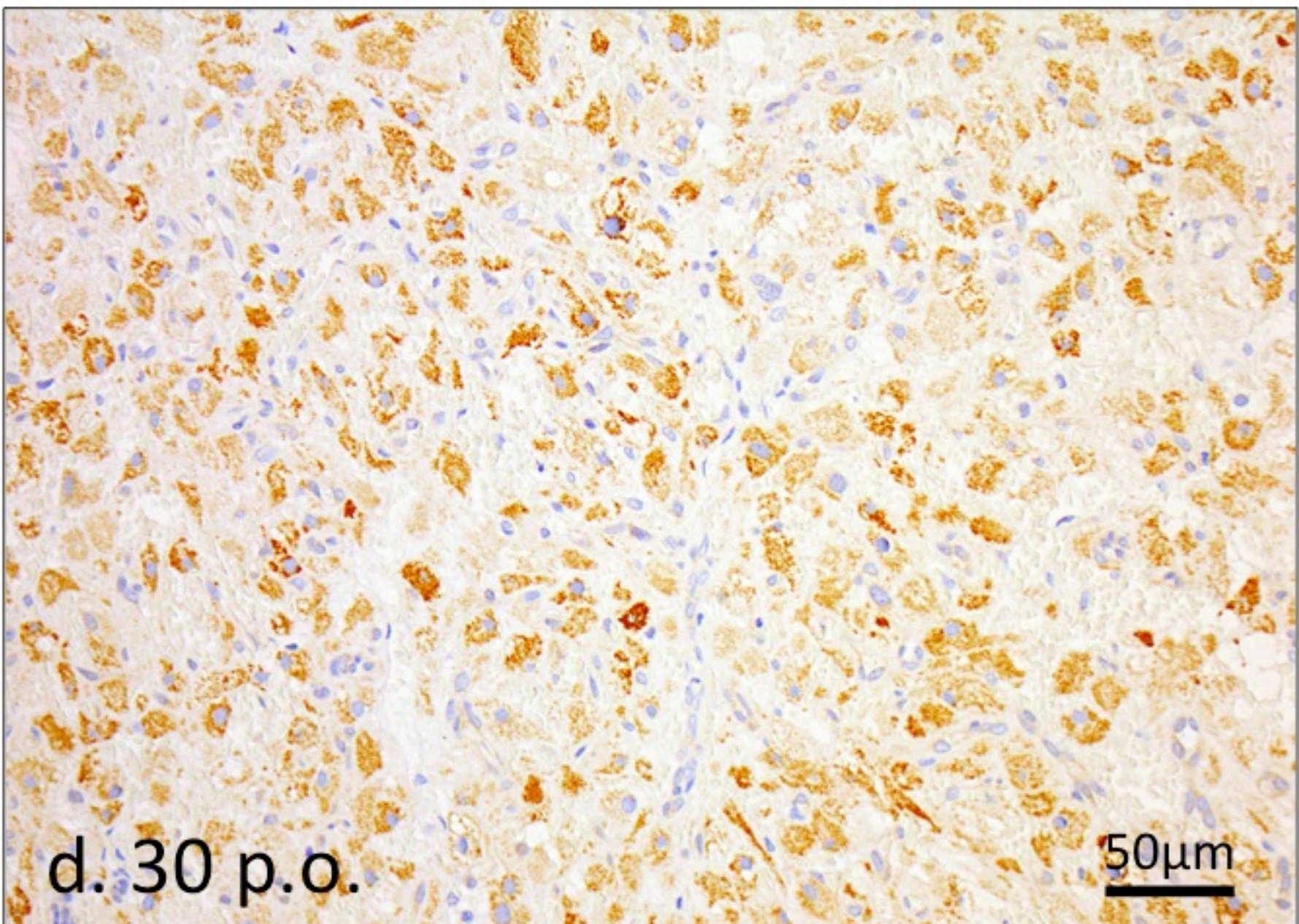
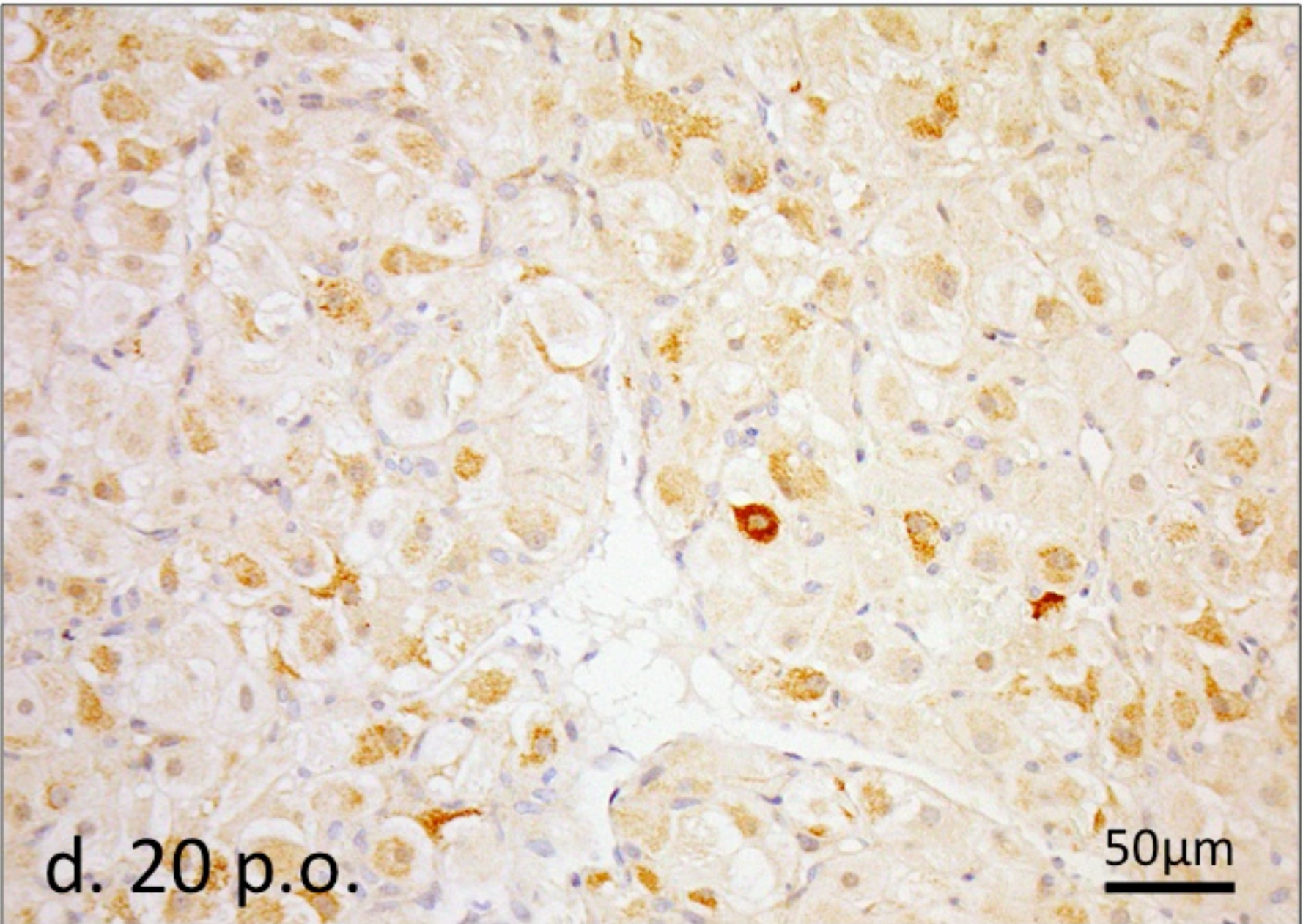
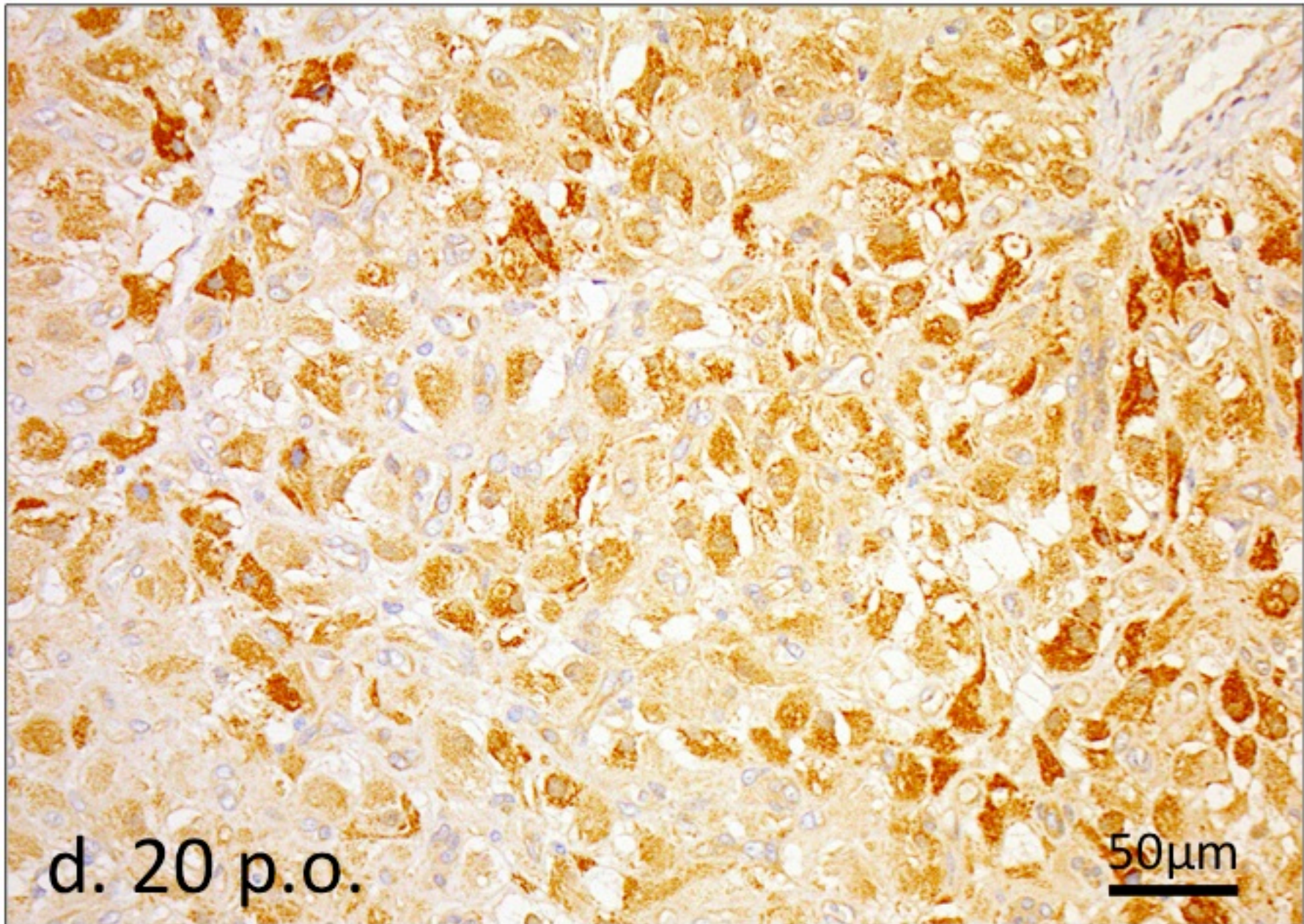
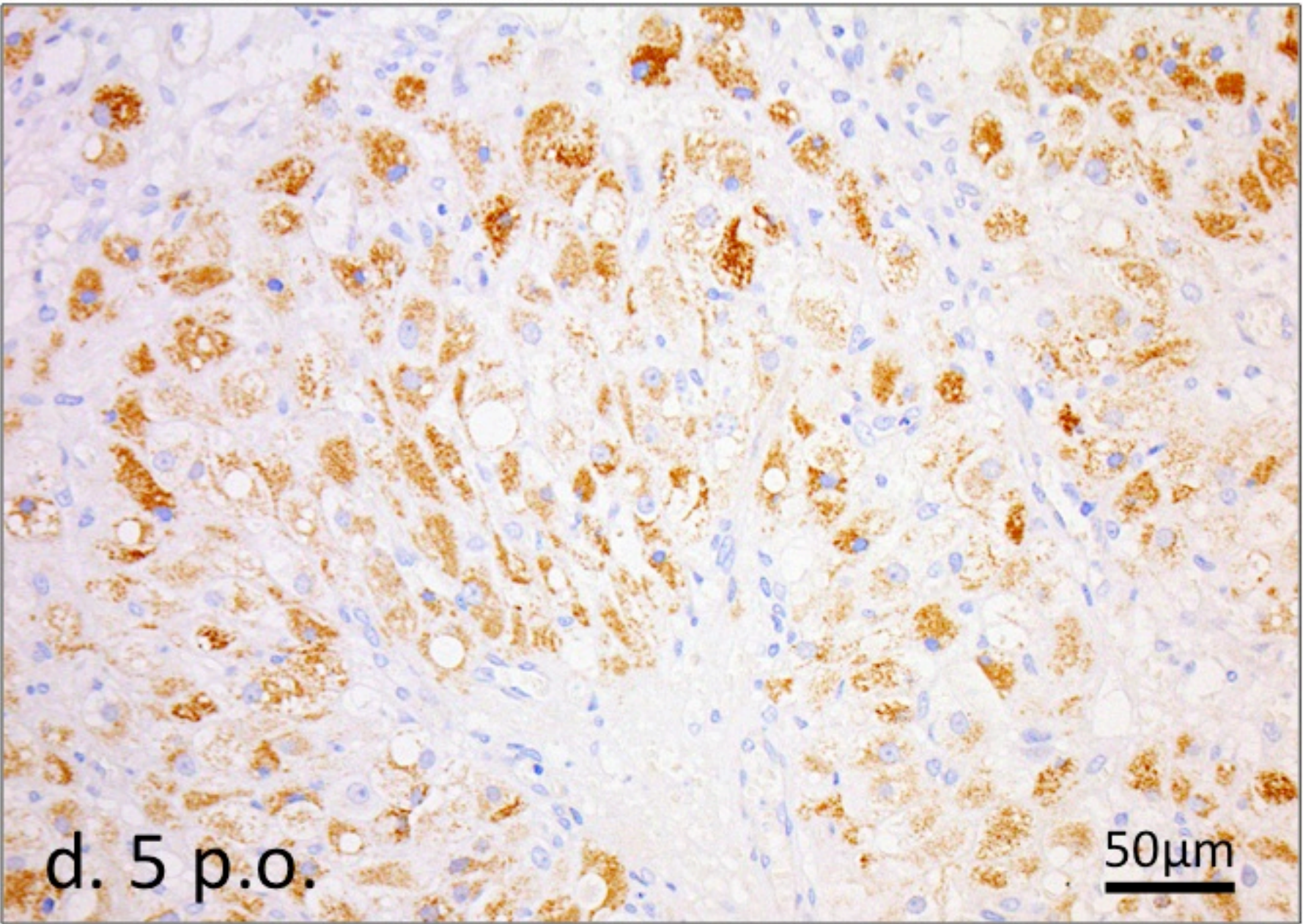
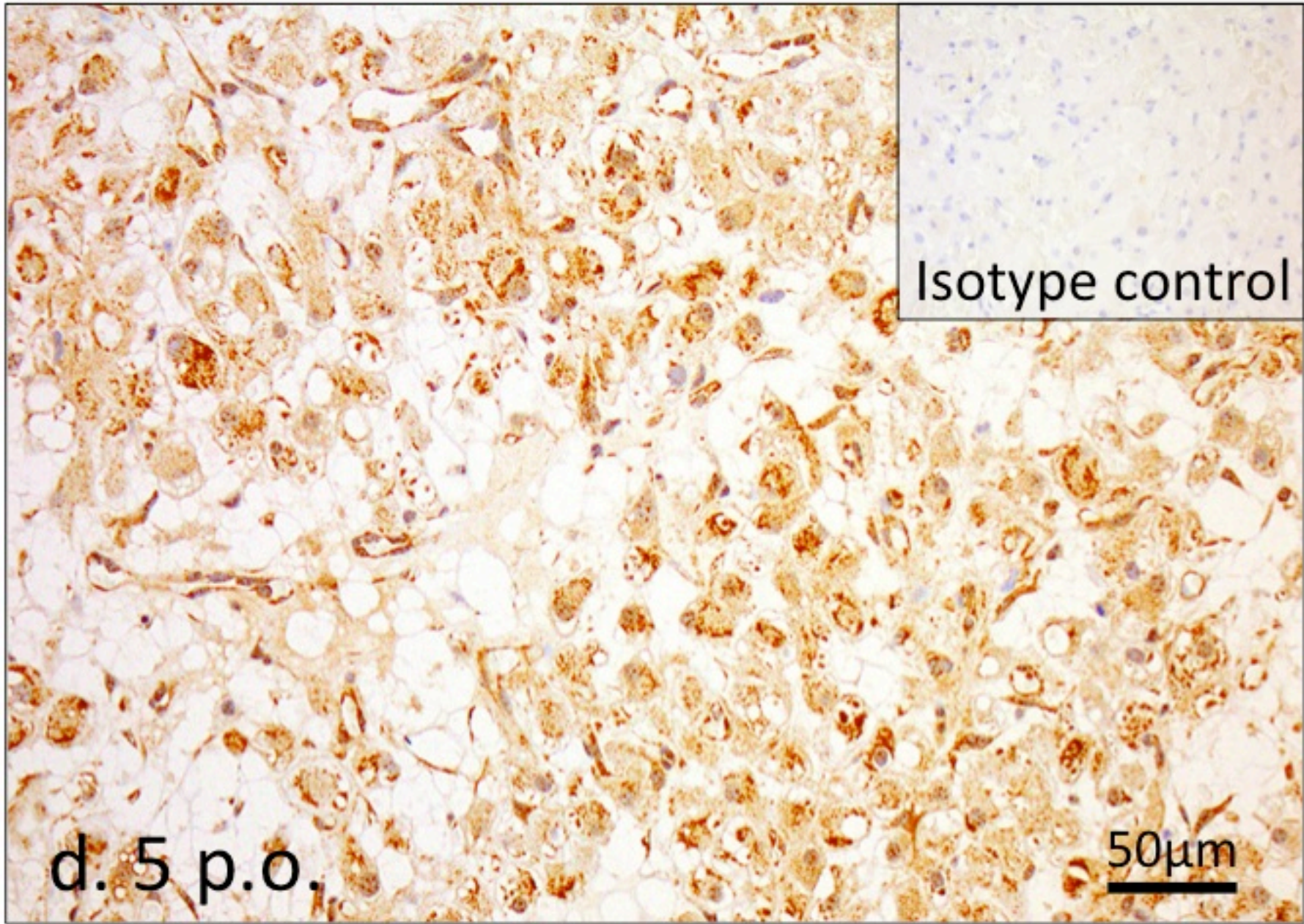


Figure 4



Control



Previcox - treated

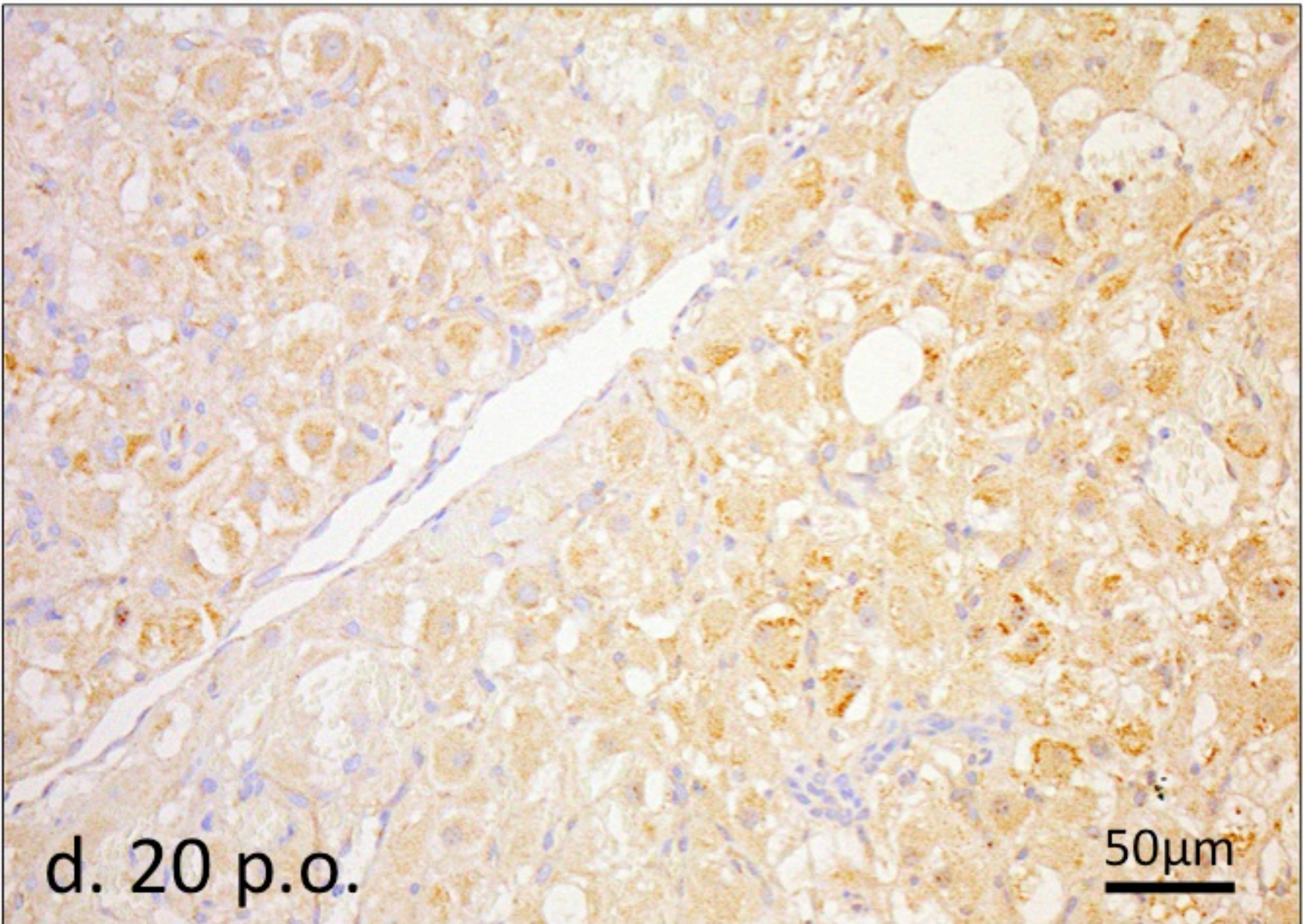
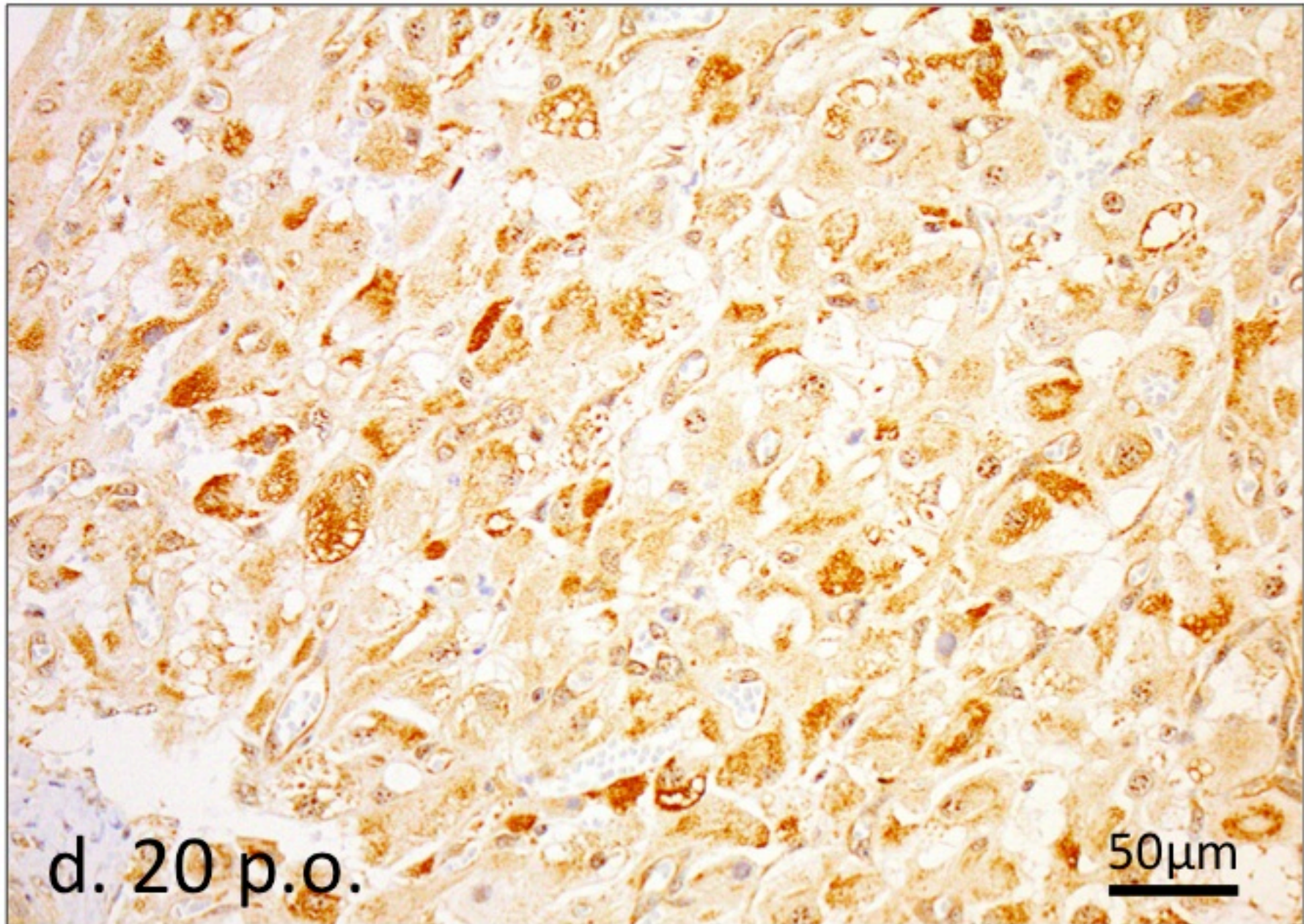
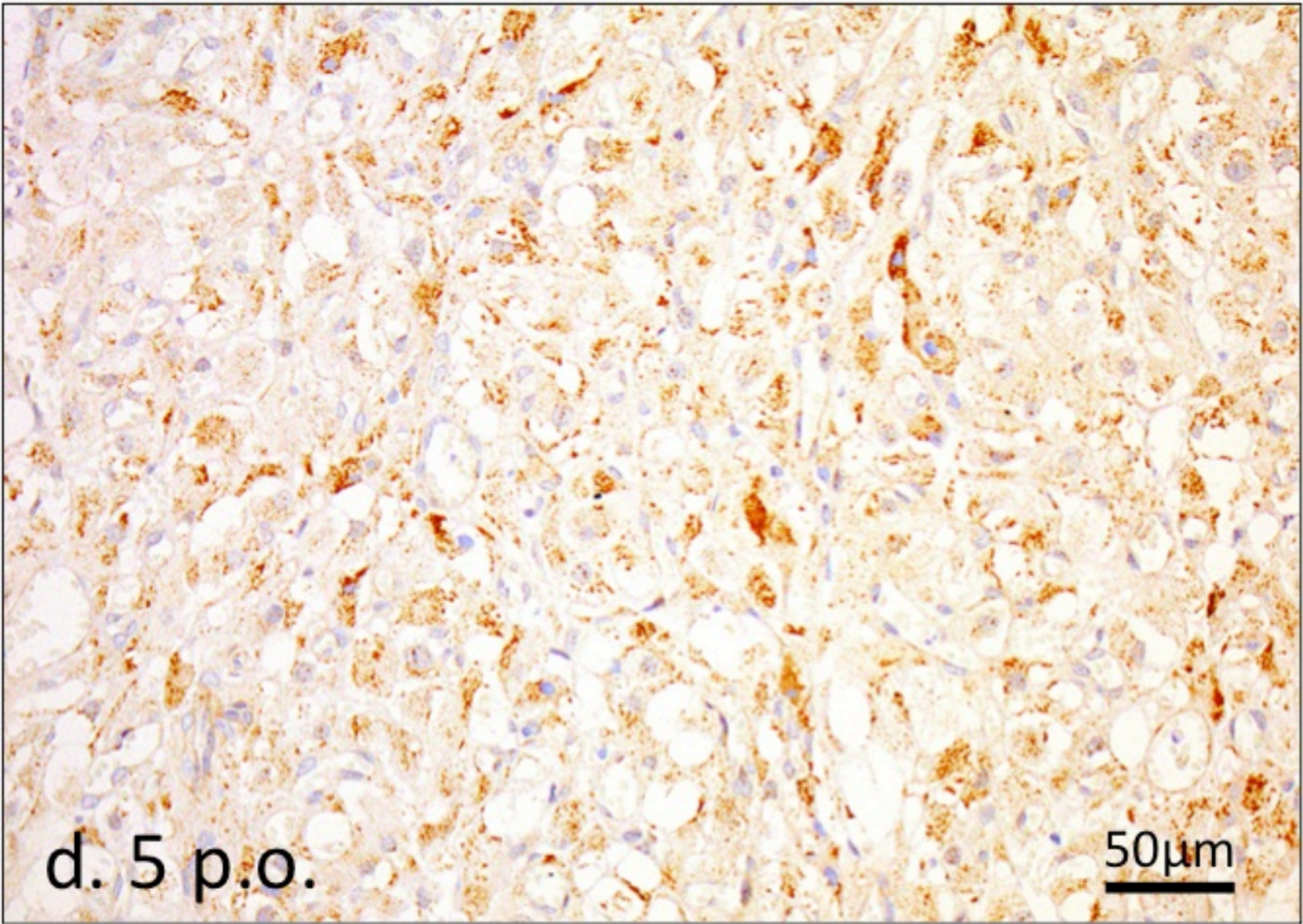


Figure 5



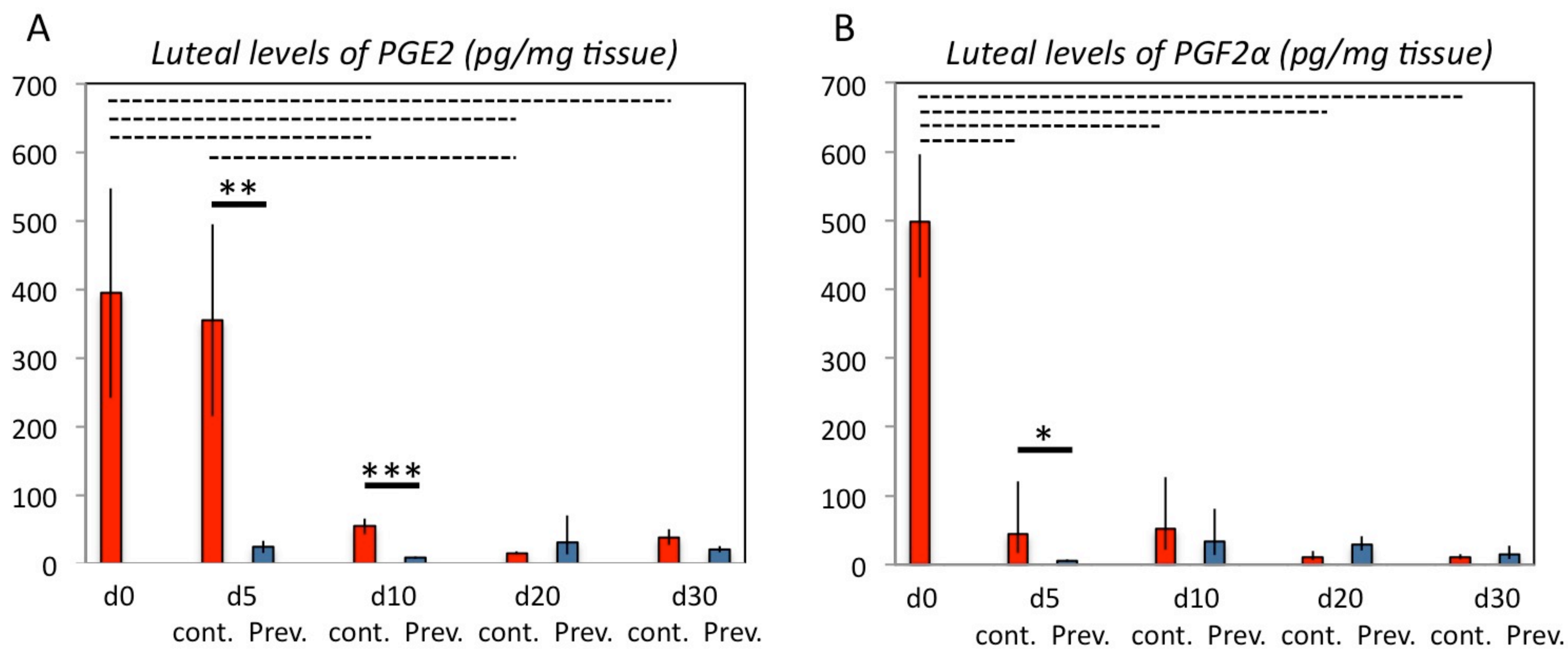


Figure 6

Primer	Accession numbers	Primer Sequence	Product lenght (bp)
GAPDH (forward) GAPDH (reverse) GAPDH (TaqMan Probe)	AB028142	5'-GCT GCCAAATAT GAC GAC ATC A-3' 5'-GTA GCC CAG GAT GCC TTT GAG-3' 5'-TCC CTC CGA TGC CTG CTT CAC TAC CTT-3'	75bp
18SrRNA (forward) 18SrRNA (reverse) 18SrRNA (TaqMan Probe)	FJ797658	5'-GTC GCT CGC TCC TCT CCT ACT-3' 5'-GGC TGA CCG GGT TGG TTT-3' 5'-ACA TGC CGA CGG GCG CTG AC-3'	125bp
STAR (forward) STAR (reverse) STAR (TaqMan Probe)	EF522840	5'- CGA GGC TCC ACC TGT GTG T-3' 5'- CCT TTC TGC TCA GGC ATC TC-3', 5'- CTG GCA TGG CCA CAC ATT TC-3	65bp
PGES (forward) PGES (reverse) PGES (TaqMan Probe)	NM_001122854	5'-GTC CTG GCG CTG GTG AGT -3' 5'- ATG ACA GCC ACC ACG TAC ATC T-3' 5'-TCC CAG CCT TCC TGC TCT GCA GC -3'	89bp
PTGER2 (EP2) (forward) PTGER2 (EP2) (reverse) PTGER2 (EP2) (TaqMan Probe)	AF075602	5'- CAC CCT GCT GCT GCT TCT C-3' 5'- CGG TGC ATG CGG ATG AG-3' 5'-TGC TCG CCT GCA ACT TTC AGC GTC -3'	78bp
PTGER4 (EP4) (forward) PTGER4 (EP4) (reverse) PTGER4 (EP4) (TaqMan Probe)	NM_001003054	5'- AAA TCA GCA AAA ACC CAG ACT TG-3' 5'-GCA CGG TCT TCC GCA GAA -3' 5'-ATC CGA ATT GCT GCT GTG AAC CCT ATC C -3'	96bp
COX2 (forward) COX2 (reverse) COX2 (TaqMan Probe)	HQ110882	5'- GGA GCA TAA CAG AGT GTG TGA TGT G-3' 5'- AAG TAT TAG CCT GCT CGT CTG GAA T-3' 5'- CGC TCA TCA TCC CAT TCT GGG TGC -3'	87bp
PGT (forward) PGT (reverse) PGT (TaqMan probe)	NM_001011558	5'-TGC AGC ACT AGG AAT GCT GTT C-3' 5'-GGG CGC AGA GAA TCA TGG A-3' 5'-TCT GCA AAC CAT TCC CCG CGT G-3'	116bp
HPGD (forward) HPGD (reverse) HPGD (TaqMan Probe)	NM_001284477	5'-GGC AGC GAA TCT CAT GAA CAG-3' 5'- TCT TCT TTC TCA ATG GAT TCA AGGA-3' 5'- TGA ATG CCA TTT GCC CAG GCT TTG-3'	93bp
PRLr (forward) PRLr (reverse) PRLr (TaqMan Probe)	HQ267784	5'-GGA TCT TTG TGG CCG TTC TTT-3' 5'-AAG GAT GCA GGT CAC CAT GCT AT-3' 5'-ATT ATG GTC GTA GCA GTG GCT TTG AAA GGC-3'	92bp
PGR (forward) PGR (reverse) PGR (TaqMan Probe)	NM_001003074	5'-CGA GTC ATT ACC TCA GAA GAT TTG TTT -3' 5'- CTT CCA TTG CCC TTT TAA AGA AGA-3' 5'- AAG CAT CAG GCT GTC ATT ATG GTG TCC TAA CTT-3'	113bp
LHR (forward) LHR (reverse) LHR (TaqMan Probe)	XM538486	5'- TCA TCA TTT GTG CTT GCT ACA TTA AA-3' 5'- CGC CAT TTT CTT AGC AAT CTT TG-3' 5'- TGC AGT TCA AAA TCC AGA GCT GAT GGC-3'	98bp

Table 1